828 753 or fainting, and also such localized trauma as abcesses. Similar behavior followed the influence of malevolent magical amulets, incantations, and love magic. Natural intrusions may be exemplified by the seasonal influences of rain, which brought on too much water element; of heat, which increased fire; and of wind, which cooled too much or brought in certain fevers, e.g. north fever (khai nüa). An accident was a natural cause of disequilibrium. A cut might let out the air or a soul.

774 [761] [753] Any lost soul, if not restored, meant death. Souls were lost from falls or frights or from spirit attack, a condition recognized by persistent crying, hysteria, and unconsciousness. The exits were at the top of the head, the palms of the hands, and the soles of the feet, the latter 2 sometimes localized at the 2 thumbs and the 2 great toes. One of the old beliefs associated an element with one of the four čhĕttaphūt souls (Textor:130). When one of these souls was lost one whole element was gone. Loss of the khwan soul was more frequent than any other, especially during childhood. Its care [844] throughout life was very much in mind. The khwan[18] played an especially prominent part during childbirth.

765 [762] [757] If a person were only slightly sick, he might first try to overcome his physical complaint by attention to diet. Very rarely did he by himself buy some medicine at a drug store. If it were a case of a child's lost khwan, women performed the rite for its recovery. When the khwan of an adult was affected, men performed a strengthening rite (tham khwan), or a priest gave a holy water bath. If the person were very ill, holy cotton thread (sāi sin) was tied at wrist, ankle, and neck so as to shut off the soul exits. An elder relative or spouse might also "bon," i.e. vow food or liquor in return for the help of supernatural beings; or, with Buddhist "sacred things" in mind, promise the ordination of the afflicted person, or oneself, or some interested relative. In this case, the relatives had long since turned for help from the arts of medicine.

278 755 The Arts of Medicine

Medical knowledge comprised on the one hand a pharmacology of materia medica, and on the other, the far more important

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18. The conceptualization of this soul was Brahmanic in source, rather than Buddhist (cf. Martinie, 1952:370).

magical formulae and incantations (khāthā cf. Textor 1960:80-98; 67-79). It was one of the branches of occultism (saiyasāt [Mcf. 1940:895]), the ancient science which sought by magical means to control the forces of the heavens and of earth and to manipulate them in behalf of man's interests and enterprises, whether economic, aesthetic, personal, or other. Some of the other branches were dancing, singing, the agricultural rites, boxing, boat- and house-building, and the life-cycle rites. This powerful wisdom was contained in sacred books at the Buddhist temple where it passed, usually orally, from priest to priest. It could be transmitted away from the temple between men, if they had once been ordained. Its transmission was controlled by ritual teacher-pupil relations, and its use by formal request through presentation of a sacred offering, the khwan khao (cf. Dūan's Tale p.44). Unauthorized magic did not work because it was not validated by its supernatural discoverer; improper ritual behavior incurred strong supernatural sanctions. Instruction in magic and its use was free except for the token offerings and coin in the khwan khāo. The only rigid obligation was a public annual homage-to-the-teacher ritual (wai khrū).

The persons authorized to handle any part of saiyasāt were called mō. In the context of medicine, mō was translated "doctor." To keep the modern and ancient traditions separate, we shall use the Thai word "mō" throughout this paper for the practitioner of the ancient occult art, reserving the word "doctor" for physicians trained in modern medicine.

The field of medicine was split into categories or specialties. There were, for instance, the exorcisers of spirits or disease objects (mō phī), and the curers (mō raksā) who made up decoctions particularly for element imbalances. Astrologist-foretellers (mō dū) analysed disturbances due to astral confluences; soul-ceremonialists (mō khwan) carried on the khwan-strengthening rites; and the mō sanē specialized in love and hate magic. On a lower plane were masseurs (mō nūat) and midwives (mō tamyae). No specialist could operate in the field of another unless he had formally acquired that specialty. No limits, though, were set on the number of specialties a person might acquire so that all their lives, mō were open to and seeking new knowledge by pilgrimage, discussion, or visit to a Chinese or modern druggist. The major curing specialties were only in the hands of males, but men and women both practiced the minor branches of midwifery and massaging.[19]

19. A woman medium (khonsong) who cured when possessed by the spirit of a male mō was not entitled to be called mō. Her special circumstances are discussed in "Magic and Maturity."

On the other hand, pregnancy was a period of uncertainty when a woman was easily upset emotionally. Because childbirth was "like a war" when a woman might die, "defeated by her pregnancy" (phaethong), she felt uneasy.[24] If she were frightened, her child's khwan would fly off in terror. The baby died in the womb if its khwan did not return. Because of increased sensitivity and vulnerability her elements and those of the baby were frequently thrown off balance. Wind easily entered through the thin skin of her stomach where she carried the unborn child. It caused pre-natal disorders all the way from queasiness and minor vomiting in early pregnancy to miscarriage and death. "A woman felt dizziness and numbness because of wind in the fetus. In a month she suffered a miscarriage."

A pre-natal pain that did not seem to be a labor-pain was diagnosed as the very dangerous naem, "a thick lump of blood and wind that moved quickly." As in other illnesses, element harmony was restored by medicines, holy water, and by modifications of diet.

Women knew of possible supernatural invasions of the womb during pregnancy. If a woman had beforehand lost a baby at birth or through miscarriage, and the body had not been properly buried, she might be seriously troubled by its restless ghost, fully as powerful, it must be remembered, as an adult's.

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24. The image of battle was traditional (cf. Anuman Rajadhon: 108). Phaethong (HcF: 599), a combination of food craving and vomiting (Anuman Rajadhon:115) paralleled the dola-duka of Ceylon (cf. Obeyesekere), but without the hostilities built in by the Sinhalese.

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the fire for her during the first day or so, lest in her straining, Dūan's womb "move to a new place," but Duan did it herself thereafter. The smoke was harder on others than for her for she was on the floor. She could leave the plank to bathe and to relieve herself through a crack in the floor. As soon as Chāi got over being frightened of her turmeric-yellow stomach, he often came and lay beside her on the plank, though it was a squeeze! She took her medicine and often sipped hot water, feeling very modern with her brand-new thermos bottle. Constantly turning her back or front to the fire, she poked or dripped water on the flames to make coals. Once she tossed on a dry palm leaf, and as it flared up, put a cloth over her head to trap the smoke and heat. Though a rash developed on her body, she was complimented by Lek on the care she was taking of the heating and drying process. Unfortunately, a neighbor who wanted to help brought in some of the wood one day. Not remembering that to make noise with the wood caused diseased red eyes in the baby, she dropped the bundle with a crash! Alas, "sang" disease, of course, came at once. So the near-by mō who always cared for them had to be called, but he used no medicine. "For eyes red from 'sang'," he said, "never use any eye-medicine as drops, or they will be permanently damaged or blind. Such eyes have not enough resistance to win over the strength of the medicine. A drop of mother's milk, any mother's, in the eyes is the cure."

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Uterus pain was said to last one day for the first child, 2 days for the second, and so forth, increasingly. As Dūan seemed to be in considerable pain, Lek resorted to an old cure: she secretly took the bamboo knife and the phlai from the baby's tray and put them under Duan's plank bed without telling her. Slowly the pain diminished.

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If anyone spoke of uterus pain to her during the fire period, Dūan would suffer still more. If a visitor spoke of the hotness of the fire, little boils would appear on her body. The fire, being thus made too hot, would have to be put out, and Duan "would be weak for a long time." This was because actions or even words occurring beside the holy fire set a new and permanent pattern. Neighbor's children were kept away lest they inadvertently exclaim about the heat.

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A few relatives with gifts of banana, turmeric, and face powder dropped in, but visitors mostly stayed away. "It is an ugly sight," said Dūan, "lying here with only a cloth over me, half naked and yellow, and I fear there might be an unpleasant smell."

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The winnowing tray, with the baby on a pillow now covered with a plastic cloth, rested on a low table, the legs of which stood in bowls of water to keep away ants. At first an old dome-shaped fish trap had been set over it to prevent draft and

wood was getting low. Friday (wan suk:day of happiness) was the best day of all to leave the fire, but for her, Friday happened to fall on the fourteenth day after delivery. It was better to come off on another day than to risk taking such an important step on an even-numbered day. Even numbers were always associated with the even corners of a coffin.

Usually the fire period went off safely, but not this time! One day, the heat "seemed to come up suddenly" and choke Dūan. She rose gasping and ran to the window for air. Horrified at the terrible danger of cool air, Lek hastened to get her back to the board. Then by accident Dūan dripped too much water on the fire and put it out! Later, Dūan was almost unconscious, felt unhappy (klum) and as if "the fire were burning inside her." Lek called both Sai and the mō. As the mō entered, Lek handed him the expected offering of incense, flowers, candle, and a baht and a half for his khwan khāo. He prayed to his teacher, then made holy water and a decoction both of which he gave Dūan to drink, saying, "The bad blood and the fish-water did not flow out well, a common trouble after childbirth. Since your body is not cold and the fire has not been out a half-day, you could start the fire up again. But as it is never good to put out the fire like this, I am taking you off it. Take a pot of salt, heat it well and wrap it in a cloth. Put that on your abdomen. Drink no cold water, or you will die."

Dūan was sad that she had to leave the fire early and on an even-numbered day, but one always wanted to obey a mō. All had gone so well when Chāi was born! That time she had taken the usual steps, choosing a Friday to come off the fire. Now she could not choose. Her formal leave of the fire was as before: The mō prepared earth holy water (nammon thoranisān), some of which she drank, and some he sprinkled on the fire. She then knelt down facing the fire and touched her forehead to the floor 3 times, asking the Mother of the Fire to bless her and her child, and to keep them well. She went outside to bathe, first with warm water to cleanse her body, then with holy water, and put on a clean skirt. Returning to the house she seated herself quietly, for she was not supposed to do anything for a time. Others in the family broke up the fireplace. The baby was taken off the winnowing tray. Warm water mixed with the holy water was dropped in his mouth. After being bathed in the holy water, he was laid in a little cradle made of a long cotton scarf, spread apart with sticks, and swung between 2 houseposts.

Now that the fire-period was over, they stopped all boiling of the water for the baby and Dūan. Rain water was substituted, but whenever the baby seemed sickly, boiled water was used. When their rain-water ran out, they got some at the temple. Both Dūan and the baby continued taking medicine for many weeks.

Even after the child was out, the pile of wood was still a drying womb to be treated carefully. It was also the wood for a consecrated fire. To drop a piece of this wood carelessly both injured and desecrated. If this happened a disease of the eyes "sang," came at once for which no male medical powers had any remedy. The only cure was in women's hands, that essence of maternity, "a drop of mother's milk--any mother's." The larger implications of this linking of fire and maternity are dealt with in the next section.

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The Fire of Maturity

In the events surrounding the birth of the child, the significant step for the woman personally was the post-partum rest period by the fire (yū fai). Far more was at stake than just drying the uterus. The fire rest was one of the series of rites of the life-cycle which marked the course of an individual from birth to death. The others were the cutting of the umbilical cord, first head shaving, top-knot tonsure, ordination (for men), marriage, and cremation. Through the consecrated fire a woman formally achieved full maturity: she became suk (cooked, ripe, mature). Maturity did not come just by bearing a child. The fire brought about the transformation.[46]

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How was mature womanhood viewed? What was the essential female role and office? Bang Chan saw a woman as one who "feeds and lengthens lives." As the custodian of growth she was, first, the guardian of the vital, essential khwan soul, and especially of the immature, flighty khwan of growing persons.

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Secondly, a woman was a donor of nourishment (liang).[47] Her primary responsibility was to nurture children and other tender beings. She nourished the fetus with her blood. After

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46. "The fiery element digests what is eaten or drunk...and cooks the body and gives it its beauty of complexion. And the body thus cooked is kept free from decay" (Warren:157-158).

47. All the deities "concerned with the welfare of our bodies and our khwan" were maternal (Mae), e.g. Rice, Water, Earth, "Mother-Goddess" (Mae Sū), and several Mother-Princesses (Chao Mae). Fire, and maybe wind, were both female (mae) and male (phra) (Textor:485). To these deities, "higher" than ordinary spirits, Bang Chan "owed more."

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Thus she performed several rites involving the maintenance of the immature khwan of children and of rice.[54]

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The acme of maternal virtues was manifested in the "good nourishers" (liang dī). These women had borne many children who "nursed and slept well, did not cry, and easily established good habits." They were liang dī not just because of the time spent by the fire, for that time could be matched by persons who had lost babies. They were special persons of more than usual capacities for success in nurture. Good to have around for their auspicious influence, they were called upon to inaugurate or help processes concerned with health and growth. They performed, or caught the child in the winnowing ceremony, or gave babies their first suck. They were the persons to whom a sickly child was brought so that his health might be improved by calling the soul and tying holy cord at wrist and ankle (riak khwan). [755] [774]

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54. If a child indfcated by continuous crying that he had lost his khwan, a mature (suk) woman had to be asked to call it back ritually and re-tie it into the body with sacred cord at wrist and ankle. There was no special magic. Her words suffice. Khwan-ladling, a more elaborate and compelling form of the same ceremony, used magical formulae (Textor:401-402). One of Phillips' sentence-completion tests was, "If one is frightened, the best thing to do is..." Of the respondents, 7 women, including one Muslim, would set to work to "call back the khwan" (Phillips:267-268). No man suggested the latter.

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In the agricultural rites, women handled the rice's khwan in basically the same way when it was immature: inviting the young Rice Goddess to stay and grow in the field, and transporting to the house the child-like seed that only next year would grow to maturity. For these rites a woman used an incantation if she knew one. That she could also handle the rice khwan by speaking "extemporaneously" (Textor:429), indicated that her mere words were enough. If no one else were available, a non-suk woman could call the khwan of a child or of the Rice Mother by reason of her in-born female potency, but could not "ladle" a khwan.

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When the khwan was mature (after a person was about age 10) men took over its care. In the men's thaw khwan (khwan-strengthening) rite, here, too, women were the ones to carry off the cloth-and-leaf covering of the bāisī (tiered offering) into which the khwan had flitted during the ceremony. The rice-ceremony at the threshing floor was a thaw khwan, so was performed by man.

562 789 [754] [787] love philters, and they might be "sealed up" in childbirth or attacked by khun, their capacities to "liang" were inalienable. If any woman tried to tamper with men's magic, a severe sanction fell on her. She became the host of the phī krasū who lived from faeces like a dog.[59] On the other hand in a legendary case a man who tried to perform one of the women's rites to the Rice Mother was destroyed.[60] Furthermore, the Buddhist sanction of sinfulness fell on any man using magic for evil purposes.

562 791 [755] [793] The single channel where women might operate in the men's field of curing, power, clairvoyance, etc. was as a medium (khon song), through possession by a spirit. If possessed by a male mō, she could do everything a mō could do. Men were never mediums. Bang Chan's only medium was possessed by a male mō.[61] During seances she talked and sat like a man, and gave out cures and advice to an eager clientele. Only while wearing the yellow robe of an ordained priest did a man enjoy a generalized eufunction comparable to a woman's nurturing capacity. His powers in many respects were far greater than hers, but limited in her speical province.

[832] [156] [688] [626] [593] 59. My finding is based on Textor's interesting facts (pp. 305-330). He described the hosts of phī krasū as married women ("never a maiden") in their 30's or 40's, who were "invariably" trying to learn love magic. Such women were, however, violating their sexual function as nurturant and worse, their status as "suk" women, ritually established by the holy fire! Ostracism by the community, implemented by fear of contagion through spittle, lasted even unto the deathbed. The phī krasū's daughter alone was immune while giving the devoted care which was every mother's due in her old age, for Bang Chan desired no alienation of this filial duty even out of fear of the terrible sanction on the mother.

[539] [776] 60. The legend ran that once a man instead of a woman went into the rice field to perform the ritual inviting of the Rice Goddess to stay there and be cared for with food and offerings during her pregnancy. The goddess he met was not an immature and tender child-like spirit, but the adult, pregnant being who was powerful, flirtatious, and frightening. Dazzled by her beauty he fell in love with her, and ran away with her, vanishing forever. The goddess, affronted because an improper person arrived to deal with her, destroyed him.

[825] [787] 61. In Bangkok, monkey, cats, or spirits may also possess women.

Chapter VII

ATTITUDES TOWARD MODERN MEDICINE AND MIDWIFERY

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Modern and traditional medicine appeared to Bang Chan to have much in common. Both subscribed to a belief in disruptive intrusions. In typhoid and cholera, the old scheme postulated intrusions of fire and earth. Boils involved a spirit attack or excess of fire. For these same disorders, new medicine spoke instead of virus or bacterial infection. Such concepts as nutritional deficiencies, insect transmission, and pollution, however, were alien to the old views as disease agents.

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Modern medicines paralleled the old decoctions. Antibiotics, ointments, or pain-pills were appreciated for their efficacy, but evoked no surprise, for every plant in the world was said to have some therapeutic value. Injections were similar to the sub-cutaneous magical protective needle.

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"Old" medicine did not feel threatened because people were not convinced that the modern was better. The 2 systems were viewed as different, each having its own specialties. The difference was sometimes phrased as "Old medicine cares for old ailments; modern medicine for new ones." Spirit possession and khun attack, for instance, were old ailments; poliomyelitis, gonorrhea, and maybe diphtheria, new (J.R. Hanks, 1955:155-195). It was sometimes better not to claim competence outside these customary lines. One mo said he could cure gonorrhea, but the young men preferred a city doctor. Sometimes, though, one could not be sure what was a new disease.

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Another phrasing of the proper place for modern medicine was that because of varying "habit," differing social stations required differing medical techniques. "Modern medicine is only good for delicate city people or other kinds of farmers, but does not give enough strength for rice-farmers." The orchardists below Bangkok who "had the habit of eating a lot of fruit," and the teachers and traders of Bang Chan (who went to the second class practitioners, and occasionally to modern doctors) were assumed to have different physical needs than farmers. The post-partum fire was clung to as strength-making: "woman are weak if no fire." The hot ashes chamber, introduced from Bangkok, was for the most part used by non-farm women.

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An old woman summed up significantly 2 attitudes saying, "In the old days people made more merit and so lived longer, but because we had no hospitals, the children died younger." The relation of good health and longevity to proper religious and moral behavior was fundamental in Bang Chan. If merit did not suffice, medical attention, traditional or modern, could not prolong life. Children, however, were tender (ɔ̄n) and easily prey to sickness.

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Traditional care could help them, but being delicate and tender like city people, children could also be helped by modern hospital care.

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Between the 2 systems people sensed little conflict, for each patient made a preliminary diagnosis of his symptoms and sought the type of assistance his diagnosis and convenience indicated. Mɔ̄ with some knowledge of both systems might offer their patients a choice of remedy. With the right diagnosis, magic, and medicines, a quick cure was expected. if not forth-coming, people were disappointed and moved to another specialist for his help. Modern medicine merely took its place as one more recourse.

The basic handicap of modern medicine was that it had no magical resources or holy water. "Its effectiveness is limited to the properties of the ingredients." Old medicine on the other hand had, in addition to these properties, "The strength of the mɔ̄'s incantation plus the power of every person who learned and used that incantation, back to the time of its discovery, centuries ago." Thus where the medical schemes offered the same specialty, as in fevers, bone-setting, or obstetrics, the old appeared to offer more resources.

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Besides its deficiencies in magic and strength-making attributes, modern medical care had other drawbacks. First, it was not accessible. A trip to Bangkok for medical purposes involved far more time than a day. Minburī's Health Center was a feasible trip, even for a woman in labor (stays ranged from 6 to 24 hours). Home arrangements for tending children, feeding buffalo, and other chores were less demanding. Bang Chan's eagerness for local modern care was shown when a Bangkok physician visited Bang Chan for a few times as part of a nutrition study. He was besieged with private requests for medical advice. Secondly, modern medical care was expensive. In Bangkok, after the expense of getting there, taxis, food, and housing costs for accompanying relatives, hospital, and doctor's fees sometimes meant losing the family gold and even land. Minburī's costs were closer geared to farm income, but medicines appeared costly. "Modern drugs taste and act better, but the poor have to use the old." Third,

the priests had finished[1]. The trays of food from which each guest served himself were bountiful, but it was not proper to eat very heartily, lest the host suffer the shame of running out of food. If there were a dramatic show or movie at night it was open to the public. In one case 2000 people attended. At that time eight commercial venders turned up to sell coffee, soft drinks, ices and other foods. Venders came to every large ceremony, and were heavily patronized. At the end of a (1)ngaan, the sponsors felt satisfaction and security. Where there was plenty of food to take home, the success was even greater. An earthy compliment was, "the fields were full of feces."

In addition to the banquet were ceremonial offerings of food to spirits and ritual food sometimes consumed as a sacrament. For each ceremony, appropriate selections were made from a specific list: a cooked pig's head, or at least a slice of cooked pork; two kinds of sweetmeats, red ((2)kha-(5)nom (3)tom (1)daeaeng) and white ((2)kha-(5)nom (3)tom (5)khaaw); a cooked fish, usually (1)plaa (3)chauaun, with its head and tail; a green coconut with its coconut water; a bunch of bananas either of the (3)kluaj (4)nam-(4)waa or (3)kluaj (4)nam varieties; a hard-boiled egg, usually duck; and liquor.[2] Other kinds of sweets, fruit, sugar cane, items for betel chewing, chickwa, salt, and rice might appear. As these ceremonies were thought to be auspicious, purifying, therapeutic and protective, they were most elaborate at the great (1)tham-(1)khwan (soul-strengthening) ceremony, at house-raisings and at rites to local guardian spirits. The necessity of these ceremonies explains why when public structures were raised, a portion of the public funds were used for a repast. In Bang Chan when donations for a new school

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1. Other priorities in service might be observed; for example, at a celebration preceding ordination the priest-candidates were served next. At one small affair, when 11 priests came to a home to conduct a service for a disabled old man who could not go to the temple, this elder was served after the priests, then the research group who counted as visiting dignitaries, and finally the other family members, with the women who prepared the food, and the children, eating last. The general sequence prescribed by etiquette was: priests should be served before anyone else, old before the young, the males before females, persons with high status such as teachers and ceremonialists before low, urban before rural. Those who cooked and served came last of all. When the number of participants was large, guests might be served, as they arrived, over a period of hours.

2. The presence of meat, fish and alcohol is this ceremonial food reflected non-Buddhist elements in Thai culture, and should not be viewed as a gross violation of Buddhist precepts.

In Bang Chan when donations for a new school
264 building warranted buying the foundation materials, so that
476 volunteer labor was solicited for their installation, some of
546 the money went into food, despite additional donations of food. This was in no way misappropriation. Helping to cook was as important as helping to dig the holes.

782 The spirit-offering, or the portions eaten by a partic-
264 ipant as a sacrament, were actually tiny bits of each food. Afterward, the entire lay-out, pork, sweetmeats and all, was eaten. Because all this was holy food, it was felt to be especially strengthening, so was usually given to children, but might be eaten by family members and occasionally, priests.
262 The pork was cut up and eaten with a hot sauce, or put into a
252 "with-rice" dish. It was especially appropriate with liquor.

242 The use of food ritually was not limited to the ceremon-
755 ial season nor to big events. The same purposes underlay the
852 use of a hard-boiled egg eaten in the ceremony that was designed to restore a child "sick from temporary loss of its soul," and in another performed in order to wean a baby.

43 The benefits of a (l)ngaan accrued to every participant
554 down to the last worker and contributor according to the degree
796 of assistance. With status in this and in later lives at stake, no one hesitated to plunge into debt or even to sell land. For the sake of economy two different ceremonies might be performed on the same day, for example a child's topknot cutting at a daughter's wedding.[1] The saving was in time and expense for food preparation, but such multiple ceremonies were performed less often than one might expect.

796 One assistance in the financing was that every invited
476 guest made a contribution, customarily 5 to 10 baht, which
435 helped defray the costs. In 1952, household heads reported these contributions as totalling from 30 to 1,000 baht, with an average of 343 for the year (Janlekha, 1955). Of 96 household heads who provided information on special expenses during the 5-year period March, 1948 through February, 1953, 36 had given (l)ngaan with net expenditures (costs minus contributions) ranging from -10[2] to 15,000 baht. The average net cost was 4,361 baht (Janlekha, 1955). These figures might represent a single (l)ngaan or several events.

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1. Every desired ritual could be carried out at little cost. Thus a priest-candidate whose father was dead, was included in the pre-ordination festivities planned for a friend; and on one occasion five bodies were cremated at the same ceremony, which was sponsored by the kin of one of the deceased.

2. The -10 meant that contributions exceeded the cost.

#128 511 crop year. Except for a few exceptional cases, no new item appeared during the few months that lapsed because rice farmers customarily make their major purchases during the dry season following harvesting time. Special expenses of the 96 continuing families during the period from March, 1948 to February, 1953 were shown in Table 57.

511 Some explanations are necessary for Table 57. In the first place, whereas ordinary household expenses are estimates based on experience of farm operators, these special expenses are actual amounts spent during the specified period of five years. [432] Most of the expenses on land purchases were down payments and subsequent partial payments. Of the four families reporting purchases of household equipment, three bought guns and one bought a sewing machine. [757] [755] All major repairs were for dwellings. The major medical expenses did not include small amounts of money regularly spent on drugs for headache and stomachache or even on delivery of babies which was done by traditional midwives whose fees were nominal. In fact, there were only three cases of major medical expenses. The largest one included [525] Bangkok hospital bills amounting to 14,000 baht. The 36,190 [484] baht of odd expenses included 3,000 baht on gambling(only [691] two operators reported expenses on this item, others admitted win and losses but did not give the amounts), 2,000 baht on purchases of government lotteries which are issued once a week and also on several other occasions, 500 baht on legal prosecution, 300 baht on reward for the

[TEXT CONTINUED ON PAGE 331]